

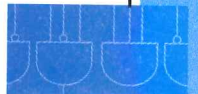


```
101001 000110 0011
110111 101010 0011
```

```
int Add(int x, int y)
{
    return x + y;
}
```

```
x + y
```

```
LDR R0, R6, 3
LDR R1, R6, 4
ADD R2, R0, R1
STR R2, R6, 0
RET
```



TRAP Routines and Subroutines

9.1 LC-3 TRAP Routines

9.1.1 Introduction

Recall Figure 8.5 of the previous chapter. In order to have the program successfully obtain input from the keyboard, it was necessary for the programmer (in Chapter 8) to know several things:

1. The hardware data registers for both the keyboard and the monitor: the monitor so a prompt could be displayed, and the keyboard so the program would know where to look for the input character.
2. The hardware status registers for both the keyboard and the monitor: the monitor so the program would know when it was OK to display the next character in the input prompt, and the keyboard so the program would know when someone had struck a key.
3. The asynchronous nature of keyboard input relative to the executing program.

This is beyond the knowledge of most application programmers. In fact, in the real world, if application programmers (or user programmers, as they are sometimes called) had to understand I/O at this level, there would be much less I/O and far fewer programmers in the business.

There is another problem with allowing user programs to perform I/O activity by directly accessing KBDR and KBSR. I/O activity involves the use of device registers that are shared by many programs. This means that if a user programmer

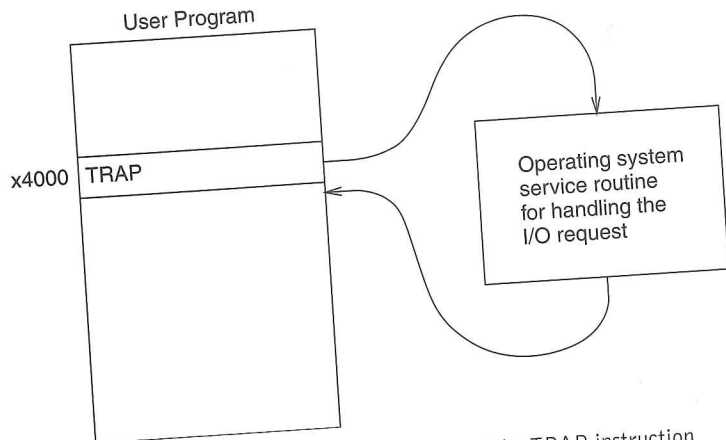


Figure 9.1 Invoking an OS service routine by means of the TRAP instruction

were allowed to access the hardware registers, and he/she messed up, it could create havoc for other user programs. Thus, it is ill-advised to give user programmers access to these registers. We say the hardware registers are **privileged** and accessible only to programs that have the proper degree of *privilege*.

The notion of privilege introduces a pretty big can of worms. Unfortunately, we cannot do much more than mention it here and leave serious treatment for later. For now, we simply note that there are resources that are not accessible to the user program, and access to those resources is controlled by endowing some programs with sufficient privilege and other programs without. Having said that, we move on to our problem at hand, a “better” solution for user programs that require input and/or output.

The simpler solution as well as the safer solution to the problem of user programs requiring I/O involves the TRAP instruction and the operating system. The operating system does have the proper degree of privilege.

We were introduced to the TRAP instruction in Chapter 5. We saw that for certain tasks, a user program could get the operating system to do the job for it by invoking the TRAP instruction. That way, the user programmer does not have to know the gory details previously mentioned, and other user programs are protected from the consequences of inept user programmers.

Figure 9.1 shows a user program that, upon reaching location x4000, needs an I/O task performed. The user program requests the operating system to perform the task on behalf of the user program. The operating system takes control of the computer, handles the request specified by the TRAP instruction, and then returns control to the user program, at location x4001. We often refer to the request made by the user program as a *service call* or a *system call*.

9.1.2 The TRAP Mechanism

The TRAP mechanism involves several elements, as follows:

1. **A set of service routines** executed on behalf of user programs by the operating system. These are part of the operating system and start at

| | |
|-------|-------|
| • | • |
| • | • |
| • | • |
| x0020 | x0400 |
| x0021 | x0430 |
| x0022 | x0450 |
| x0023 | x04A0 |
| x0024 | x04E0 |
| x0025 | xFD70 |
| • | • |
| • | • |
| • | • |

Figure 9.2 The Trap Vector Table

arbitrary addresses in memory. The LC-3 was designed so that up to 256 service routines can be specified. Table A.2 in Appendix A contains the LC-3's current complete list of operating system service routines.

2. **A table of the starting addresses** of these 256 service routines. This table is stored in memory locations x0000 to x00FF. The table is referred to by various names by various companies. One company calls this table the System Control Block. Another company calls it the Trap Vector Table. Figure 9.2 provides a snapshot of the Trap Vector Table of the LC-3, with specific starting addresses highlighted. Among the starting addresses are the one for the character output service routine (location x0430), which is contained in location x0021, the one for the keyboard input service routine (location x04A0), contained in location x0023, and the one for the machine halt service routine (location xFD70), contained in location x0025.
3. **The TRAP instruction.** When a user program wishes to have the operating system execute a specific service routine on behalf of the user program, and then return control to the user program, the user program uses the TRAP instruction.
4. **A linkage** back to the user program. The service routine must have a mechanism for returning control to the user program.

9.1.3 The TRAP Instruction

The TRAP instruction causes the service routine to execute by doing two things:

- It changes the PC to the starting address of the relevant service routine on the basis of its trap vector.
- It provides a way to get back to the program that initiated the TRAP instruction. The "way back" is referred to as a *linkage*.

The TRAP instruction is specified as follows. The **TRAP** instruction is made up of two parts: the TRAP opcode 1111 and the trap vector (bits [7:0]). Bits [11:8]

must be zero. The trap vector identifies the service routine the user program wants the operating system to perform. In the following example, the trap vector is x23.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|----|----|----|----|----|---|---|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| TRAP | | | | | | | | trap vector | | | | | | | |

The EXECUTE phase of the TRAP instruction's instruction cycle does four things:

1. The 8-bit trap vector is zero-extended to 16 bits to form an address, which is loaded into the MAR. For the trap vector x23, that address is x0023, which is the address of an entry in the Trap Vector Table.
2. The Trap Vector Table is in memory locations x0000 to x00FF. The entry at x0023 is read and its contents, in this case x04A0 (see Figure 9.2), are loaded into the MDR.
3. The general purpose register R7 is loaded with the current contents of the PC. This will provide a way back to the user program, as will become clear momentarily.
4. The contents of the MDR are loaded into the PC, completing the instruction cycle.

Since the PC now contains x04A0, processing continues at memory address x04A0.

Location x04A0 is the starting address of the operating system service routine to input a character from the keyboard. We say the trap vector "points" to the starting address of the TRAP routine. Thus, TRAP x23 causes the operating system to start executing the keyboard input service routine.

In order to return to the instruction following the TRAP instruction in the user program (after the service routine has ended), there must be some mechanism for saving the address of the user program's next instruction. Step 3 of the EXECUTE phase listed above provides this linkage. By storing the PC in R7 before loading the PC with the starting address of the service routine, the TRAP instruction provides the service routine with all the information it needs to return control to the user program at the proper location. You know that the PC was already updated (in the FETCH phase of the TRAP instruction) to point to the next instruction. Thus, at the start of execution of the trap service routine, R7 contains the address of the instruction in the user program that follows the TRAP instruction.

9.1.4 The Complete Mechanism

We have shown in detail how the TRAP instruction invokes the service routine to do the user program's bidding. We have also shown how the TRAP instruction provides the information that the service routine needs to return control to the correct place in the user program. The only thing left is to show the actual instruction in the service routine that returns control to the correct place in the user program. Recall the JMP instruction from Chapter 5. Assume that during the execution of the trap service routine, the contents of R7 was not changed. If

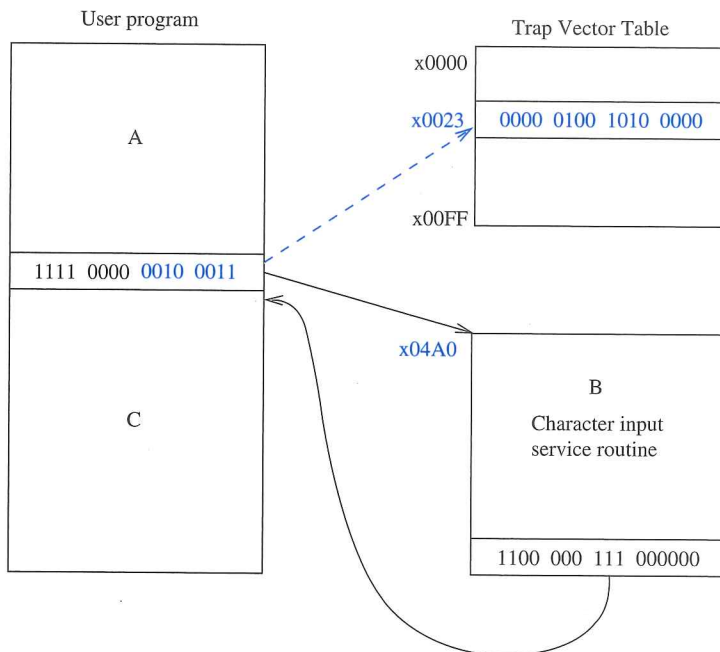


Figure 9.3 Flow of control from a user program to an OS service routine and back

that is the case, control can return to the correct location in the user program by executing `JMP R7` as the last instruction in the trap service routine.

Figure 9.3 shows the LC-3 using the TRAP instruction and the JMP instruction to implement the example of Figure 9.1. The flow of control goes from (A) within a user program that needs a character input from the keyboard, to (B) the operating system service routine that performs that task on behalf of the user program, back to the user program (C) that presumably uses the information contained in the input character.

Recall that the computer continually executes its instruction cycle (FETCH, DECODE, etc.). As you know, the way to change the flow of control is to change the contents of the PC during the EXECUTE phase of the current instruction. In that way, the next FETCH will be at a redirected address.

Thus, to request the character input service routine, we use the TRAP instruction with trap vector `x23` in our user program. Execution of that instruction causes the contents of memory location `x0023` (which, in this case, contains `x04A0`) to be loaded into the PC and the address of the instruction following the TRAP instruction to be loaded into R7. The dashed lines on Figure 9.3 show the use of the trap vector to obtain the starting address of the trap service routine from the Trap Vector Table.

The next instruction cycle starts with the FETCH of the contents of `x04A0`, which is the first instruction of the operating system service routine that requests (and accepts) keyboard input. That service routine, as we will see momentarily, is patterned after the keyboard input routine we studied in Section 8.4. Recall that

upon completion of that input routine (see Figure 8.5), R0 contains the ASCII code of the key that was typed.

The trap service routine executes to completion, ending with the JMP R7 instruction. Execution of JMP R7 loads the PC with the contents of R7. If R7 was not changed during execution of the service routine, it still contains the address of the instruction following the TRAP instruction in the initiating user program. Thus, the user program resumes execution, with R0 containing the ASCII code of the keyboard character that was typed.

The JMP R7 instruction is so convenient for providing a return to the user program that the LC-3 assembly language provides the mnemonic RET for this instruction, as follows:

| 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

RET

The following program is provided to illustrate the use of the TRAP instruction. It can also be used to amuse the average four-year-old!

Example 9.1

Write a game program to do the following: A person is sitting at a keyboard. Each time the person types a capital letter, the program outputs the lowercase version of that letter. If the person types a 7, the program terminates.

The following LC-3 assembly language program will do the job.

```

01          .ORIG x3000
02          LD    R2,TERM    ; Load -7
03          LD    R3,ASCII    ; Load ASCII difference
04  AGAIN   TRAP  x23        ; Request keyboard input
05          ADD   R1,R2,R0    ; Test for terminating
06          BRZ   EXIT        ; character
07          ADD   R0,R0,R3    ; Change to lowercase
08          TRAP  x21        ; Output to the monitor
09          BRnzp AGAIN      ; ... and do it again!
0A  TERM    .FILL xFFC9      ; FFC9 is negative of ASCII 7
0B  ASCII   .FILL x0020
0C  EXIT    TRAP  x25        ; Halt
0D          .END

```

The program executes as follows: The program first loads constants xFFC9 and x0020 into R2 and R3. The constant xFFC9, which is the negative of the ASCII code for 7, is used to test the character typed at the keyboard to see if the four-year-old wants to continue playing. The constant x0020 is the zero-extended difference between the ASCII code for a capital letter and the ASCII code for that same letter's lowercase representation. For example, the ASCII code for A is x41; the ASCII code for a is x61. The ASCII codes for Z and z are x5A and x7A, respectively.

Then TRAP x23 is executed, which invokes the keyboard input service routine. When the service routine is finished, control returns to the application program (at line 05), and R0 contains the ASCII code of the character typed. The ADD and BRz instructions test for the terminating character 7. If the character typed is not a 7, the ASCII uppercase/lowercase difference (x0020) is added to the input ASCII code, storing the result in R0. Then a TRAP to the monitor output service routine is called. This causes the lowercase representation of the same letter to be displayed on the monitor. When control returns to the application program (this time at line 09), an unconditional BR to AGAIN is executed, and another request for keyboard input appears.

The correct operation of the program in this example assumes that the person sitting at the keyboard only types capital letters and the value 7. What if the person types a \$? A better solution to Example 9.1 would be a program that tests the character typed to be sure it really is a capital letter from among the 26 capital letters in the alphabet, and if it is not, takes corrective action.

Question: Augment this program to add the test for bad data. That is, write a program that will type the lowercase representation of any capital letter typed and will terminate if anything other than a capital letter is typed. See Exercise 9.6.



9.1.5 TRAP Routines for Handling I/O

With the constructs just provided, the input routine described in Figure 8.5 can be slightly modified to be the input service routine shown in Figure 9.4. Two changes are needed: (1) We add the appropriate .ORIG and .END pseudo-ops. .ORIG specifies the starting address of the input service routine—the address found at location x0023 in the Trap Vector Table. And (2) we terminate the input service routine with the JMP R7 instruction (mnemonically, RET) rather than the BR NEXT_TASK, as is done on line 20 in Figure 8.5. We use JMP R7 because the service routine is invoked by TRAP x23. It is not part of the user program, as was the case in Figure 8.5.

The output routine of Section 8.3.2 can be modified in a similar way, as shown in Figure 9.5. The results are input (Figure 9.4) and output (Figure 9.5) service routines that can be invoked simply and safely by the TRAP instruction with the appropriate trap vector. In the case of input, upon completion of TRAP x23, R0 contains the ASCII code of the keyboard character typed. In the case of output, the initiating program must load R0 with the ASCII code of the character it wishes displayed on the monitor and then invoke TRAP x21.

9.1.6 TRAP Routine for Halting the Computer

Recall from Section 4.5 that the RUN latch is ANDed with the crystal oscillator to produce the clock that controls the operation of the computer. We noted that if that 1-bit latch was cleared, the output of the AND gate would be 0, stopping the clock.

Years ago, most ISAs had a HALT instruction for stopping the clock. Given how infrequently that instruction is executed, it seems wasteful to devote an opcode to it. In many modern computers, the RUN latch is cleared by a TRAP


```

01      ; Service Routine for Keyboard Input
02      ;
03      .ORIG    x04A0
04      START   ST      R1,SaveR1      ; Save the values in the registers
05              ST      R2,SaveR2      ; that are used so that they
06              ST      R3,SaveR3      ; can be restored before RET
07      ;
08              LD      R2,Newline
09      L1      LDI      R3,DSR          ; Check DDR -- is it free?
10              BRzp    L1              ; Move cursor to new clean line
11              STI     R2,DDR
12      ;
13      ; Prompt is starting address
14      ; of prompt string
15      ; Get next prompt character
16      ; Check for end of prompt string
17      Loop    LDR      R0,R1,#0
18              BRz     Input
19              LDI     R3,DSR
20              BRzp    L2              ; Write next character of
21              STI     R0,DDR          ; prompt string
22      L2      ; Increment prompt pointer
23              ADD     R1,R1,#1
24              BRnzp   Loop
25      ;
26      ; Has a character been typed?
27      Input   LDI      R3,KBSR
28              BRzp    Input
29              LDI     R0,KBDR
30              LDI     R3,DSR
31              BRzp    L3              ; Load it into R0
32      L3      LDI      R3,DSR
33              BRzp    L3
34              STI     R0,DDR          ; Echo input character
35              ; to the monitor
36      ;
37      ; Move cursor to new clean line
38      ; Service routine done, restore
39      ; original values in registers.
40      L4      LDI      R3,DSR
41              BRzp    L4
42              STI     R2,DDR
43              LD      R1,SaveR1
44              LD      R2,SaveR2
45              LD      R3,SaveR3
46              RET
47      ;
48      SaveR1   .BLKW   1
49      SaveR2   .BLKW   1
50      SaveR3   .BLKW   1
51      DSR      .FILL   xFE04
52      DDR      .FILL   xFE06
53      KBSR     .FILL   xFE00
54      KBDR     .FILL   xFE02
55      Newline   .FILL   x000A          ; ASCII code for newline
56      Prompt   .STRINGZ "Input a character>"
57      .END

```

Figure 9.4 Character input service routine

```

01          .ORIG    x0430          ; System call starting address
02          ST       R1, SaveR1     ; R1 will be used to poll the DSR
03                                     ; hardware
04      ; Write the character
05      TryWrite  LDI    R1, DSR      ; Get status
06              BRzp   TryWrite     ; Bit 15 on says display is ready
07      WriteIt   STI    R0, DDR      ; Write character
08
09      ; return from trap
0A      Return   LD      R1, SaveR1   ; Restore registers
0B              RET                ; Return from trap (JMP R7, actually)
0C      DSR      .FILL   xFE04        ; Address of display status register
0D      DDR      .FILL   xFE06        ; Address of display data register
0E      SaveR1   .BLKW   1
0F          .END

```

Figure 9.5 Character output service routine

routine. In the LC-3, the RUN latch is bit [15] of the Machine Control Register, which is memory-mapped to location xFFFE. Figure 9.6 shows the trap service routine for halting the processor, that is, for stopping the clock.

First (lines 02, 03, and 04), registers R7, R1, and R0 are saved. R1 and R0 are saved because they are needed by the service routine. R7 is saved because its contents will be overwritten after TRAP x21 executes (line 09). Then (lines 08 through 0D), the banner *Halting the machine* is displayed on the monitor. Finally (lines 11 through 14), the RUN latch (MCR[15]) is cleared by ANDing the MCR with 011111111111111. That is, MCR[14:0] remains unchanged, but MCR[15] is cleared. *Question:* What instruction (or trap service routine) can be used to start the clock?



```

01          .ORIG    xFD70          ; Where this routine resides
02          ST       R7, SaveR7
03          ST       R1, SaveR1     ; R1: a temp for MC register
04          ST       R0, SaveR0     ; R0 is used as working space
05
06      ; print message that machine is halting
07
08          LD       R0, ASCIINewLine
09          TRAP     x21
0A          LEA     R0, Message
0B          TRAP     x22
0C          LD       R0, ASCIINewLine
0D          TRAP     x21
0E      ;
0F      ; clear bit 15 at xFFFE to stop the machine
10      ;
11          LDI     R1, MCR          ; Load MC register into R1
12          LD      R0, MASK         ; R0 = x7FFF
13          AND     R0, R1, R0      ; Mask to clear the top bit
14          STI     R0, MCR         ; Store R0 into MC register
15      ;

```

Figure 9.6 HALT service routine for the LC-3

```

16 ; return from HALT routine.
17 ; (how can this routine return if the machine is halted above?)
18 ;
19             LD      R1, SaveR1 ; Restore registers
20             LD      R0, SaveR0
21             LD      R7, SaveR7
22             RET
23             ; JMP R7, actually
24
25 ; Some constants
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
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36
37
38
39
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100

```

Figure 9.6 HALT service routine for the LC-3 (continued)

9.1.7 Saving and Restoring Registers

One item we have mentioned in passing that we should emphasize more explicitly is the need to save the value in a register

- if the value will be destroyed by some subsequent action, and
- if we will need to use it after that subsequent action.

Suppose we want to input from the keyboard 10 decimal digits, convert their ASCII codes into their binary representations, and store the binary values in 10 successive memory locations, starting at the address Binary. The following program fragment does the job.

```

01             LEA      R3,Binary      ; Initialize to first location
02             LD       R6,ASCII       ; Template for line 05
03             LD       R7,COUNT      ; Initialize to 10
04     AGAIN    TRAP     x23           ; Get keyboard input
05             ADD      R0,R0,R6      ; Strip ASCII template
06             STR      R0,R3,#0      ; Store binary digit
07             ADD      R3,R3,#1      ; Increment pointer
08             ADD      R7,R7,#-1     ; Decrement COUNT.
09             BRp      AGAIN         ; More characters?
10            BRnzp     NEXT_TASK     ;
11
12     ASCII    .FILL    xFFD0        ; Negative of x0030.
13     COUNT    .FILL    #10
14     Binary   .BLKW    #10

```

The first step in the program fragment is initialization. We load R3 with the starting address of the memory space set aside to store the 10 decimal digits. We load R6 with the negative of the ASCII template. This is used to subtract x0030 from each ASCII code. We load R7 with 10, the initial value of the count. Then we execute the loop 10 times, each time getting a character from the keyboard, stripping away the ASCII template, storing the binary result, and testing to see if we are done. But the program does not work! Why? *Answer:* The TRAP instruction in line 04 replaces the value 10 that was loaded into R7 in line 03 with the address of the ADD R0,R0,R6 instruction. Therefore, the instructions in lines 08 and 09 do not perform the loop control function they were programmed to do.

The message is this: If a value in a register will be needed after something else is stored in that register, we must *save* it before the something else happens and *restore* it before we can subsequently use it. We save a register value by storing it in memory; we restore it by loading it back into the register. In Figure 9.6, line 03 contains the ST instruction that saves R1, line 11 contains the LDI instruction that loads R1 with a value to do the work of the trap service routine, line 19 contains the LD instruction that restores R1 to its original value before the service routine was called, and line 22 sets aside a location in memory for storing R1.

The save/restore problem can be handled either by the initiating program before the TRAP occurs or by the called program (for example, the service routine) after the TRAP instruction executes. We will see in Section 9.2 that the same problem exists for another class of calling/called programs, the subroutine mechanism.

We use the term *caller-save* if the calling program handles the problem. We use the term *callee-save* if the called program handles the problem. The appropriate one to handle the problem is the one that knows which registers will be destroyed by subsequent actions.

The callee knows which registers it needs to do the job of the called program. Therefore, before it starts, it saves those registers with a sequence of stores. After it finishes, it restores those registers with a sequence of loads. And it sets aside memory locations to save those register values. In Figure 9.6, the HALT routine needs R0 and R1. So it saves their values with ST instructions in lines 03 and 04, restores their values with LD instructions in lines 19 and 1A, and sets aside memory locations for these values in lines 21 and 22.

The caller knows what damage will be done by instructions under its control. Again, in Figure 9.6, the caller knows that each instance of the TRAP instruction will destroy what is in R7. So, before the first TRAP instruction in the HALT service routine is executed, R7 is saved. After the last TRAP instruction in the HALT service routine is executed, R7 is restored.

9.2 Subroutines

We have just seen how programmers' productivity can be enhanced if they do not have to learn details of the I/O hardware, but can rely instead on the operating system to supply the program fragments needed to perform those tasks. We also mentioned in passing that it is kind of nice to have the operating system access these device registers so we do not have to be at the mercy of some other user programmer.

We have seen that a request for a service routine is invoked in the user program by the TRAP instruction and handled by the operating system. Return to the initiating program is obtained via the JMP R7 instruction.

In a similar vein, it is often useful to be able to invoke a program fragment multiple times within the same program without having to specify its details all over again in the source program each time it is needed. In addition, it is sometimes the case that one person writes a program that requires such fragments and another person writes the fragments.

Also, one might require a fragment that has been supplied by the manufacturer or by some independent software supplier. It is almost always the case that collections of such fragments are available to user programmers to free them from having to write their own. These collections are referred to as *libraries*. An example is the Math Library, which consists of fragments that execute such functions as **square root**, **sine**, and **arctangent**.

For all of these reasons, it is good to have a way to use program fragments efficiently. Such program fragments are called *subroutines*, or alternatively, *procedures*, or in C terminology, *functions*. The mechanism for using them is referred to as a *Call/Return mechanism*.

9.2.1 The Call/Return Mechanism

Figure 9.4 provides a simple illustration of a fragment that must be executed multiple times within the same program. Note the three instructions starting at symbolic address L1. Note also the three instructions starting at addresses L2, L3, and L4. Each of these four 3-instruction sequences do the following:

| | | |
|-------|----------|---------|
| LABEL | LDI | R3, DSR |
| BRzp | LABEL | |
| STI | Reg, DDR | |

Two of the four program fragments store the contents of R0 and the other two store the contents of R2, but that is easy to take care of, as we will see. The main point is that, aside from the small nuisance of which register is being used for the source for the STI instruction, the four program fragments do exactly the same thing. The Call/Return mechanism allows us to execute this one 3-instruction sequence multiple times while requiring us to include it as a subroutine in our program only once.

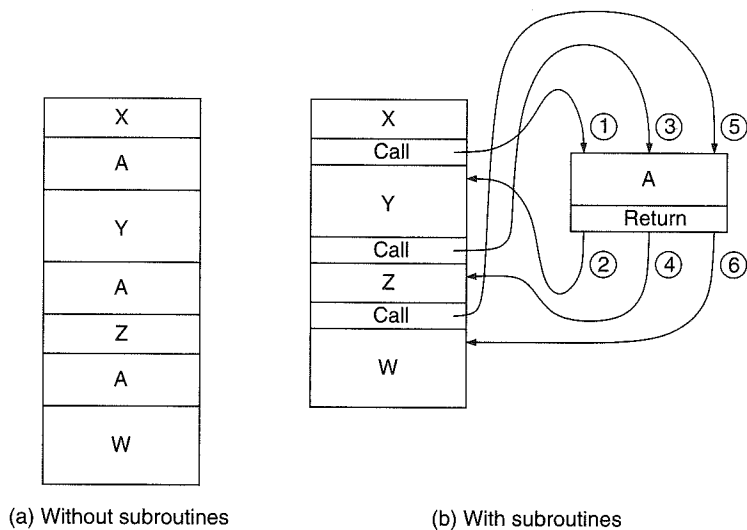


Figure 9.7 Instruction execution flow with/without subroutines

The call mechanism computes the starting address of the subroutine, loads it into the PC, and saves the return address for getting back to the next instruction in the calling program. The return mechanism loads the PC with the return address. Figure 9.7 shows the instruction execution flow for a program with and without subroutines.

The Call/Return mechanism acts very much like the TRAP instruction in that it redirects control to a program fragment while saving the linkage back to the calling program. In both cases, the PC is loaded with the starting address of the program fragment, while R7 is loaded with the address that is needed to get back to the calling program. The last instruction in the program fragment, whether the fragment is a trap service routine or a subroutine, is the JMP R7 instruction, which loads the PC with the contents of R7, thereby returning control to the instruction following the calling instruction.

There is an important difference between subroutines and the service routines that are called by the TRAP instruction. Although it is somewhat beyond the scope of this course, we will mention it briefly. It has to do with the nature of the work that the program fragment is being asked to do. In the case of the TRAP instruction (as we saw), the service routines involve operating system resources, and they generally require privileged access to the underlying hardware of the computer. They are written by systems programmers charged with managing the resources of the computer. In the case of subroutines, they are either written by the same programmer who wrote the program containing the calling instruction, or they are written by a colleague, or they are provided as part of a library. In all cases, they involve resources that cannot mess up other people's programs, and so we are not concerned that they are part of a user program.

9.2.2 The JSR(R) Instruction

The LC-3 specifies one opcode for calling subroutines, **0100**. The instruction uses one of two addressing modes for computing the starting address of the subroutine, PC-relative addressing or Base addressing. The LC-3 assembly language provides two different mnemonic names for the opcode, JSR and JSRR, depending on which addressing mode is used.

The instruction does two things. It saves the return address in R7 and it computes the starting address of the subroutine and loads it into the PC. The return address is the incremented PC, which points to the instruction following the JSR or JSRR instruction in the calling program.

The JSR(R) instruction consists of three parts.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------|----|----|----|----|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| Opcode | | | | A | Address evaluation bits | | | | | | | | | | |

Bits [15:12] contain the opcode, 0100. Bit [11] specifies the addressing mode, the value 1 if the addressing mode is PC-relative, and the value 0 if the addressing mode is Base addressing. Bits [10:0] contain information that is used to evaluate the starting address of the subroutine. The only difference between JSR and JSRR is the addressing mode that is used for evaluating the starting address of the subroutine.

JSR

The **JSR** instruction computes the target address of the subroutine by sign-extending the 11-bit offset (bits [10:0]) of the instruction to 16 bits and adding that to the incremented PC. This addressing mode is almost identical to the addressing mode of the LD and ST instructions, except 11 bits of PCOffset are used, rather than nine bits as is the case for LD and ST.

If the following JSR instruction is stored in location x4200, its execution will cause the PC to be loaded with x3E05 and R7 to be loaded with x4201.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|----|----|----|----|------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| JSR | | | | A | PCOffset11 | | | | | | | | | | |

JSRR

The JSRR instruction is exactly like the JSR instruction except for the addressing mode. **JSRR** obtains the starting address of the subroutine in exactly the same way the JMP instruction does, that is, it uses the contents of the register specified by bits [8:6] of the instruction.

If the following JSRR instruction is stored in location x420A, and if R5 contains x3002, the execution of the JSRR will cause R7 to be loaded with x420B, and the PC to be loaded with x3002.

Question: What important feature does the JSRR instruction provide that the JSR instruction does not provide?



| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|----|----|----|----|----|---|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| JSRR | | | | A | | | BaseR | | | | | | | | |

9.2.3 The TRAP Routine for Character Input, Revisited

Let's look again at the keyboard input service routine of Figure 9.4. In particular, let's look at the three-line sequence that occurs at symbolic addresses L1, L2, L3, and L4:

```

LABEL    LDI    R3, DSR
          BRzp   LABEL
          STI    Reg, DDR

```

Can the JSR/RET mechanism enable us to replace these four occurrences of the same sequence with a single subroutine? *Answer: Yes, almost.*

Figure 9.8, our "improved" keyboard input service routine, contains

```
JSR      WriteChar
```

at lines 05, 0B, 11, and 14, and the four-instruction subroutine

```

WriteChar    LDI    R3, DSR
              BRzp   WriteChar
              STI    R2, DDR
              RET

```

at lines 1D through 20. Note the RET instruction (actually, JMP R7) that is needed to terminate the subroutine.

Note the hedging: *almost*. In the original sequences starting at L2 and L3, the STI instruction forwards the contents of R0 (not R2) to the DDR. We can fix that easily enough, as follows: In line 09 of Figure 9.8, we use

```
LDR      R2, R1, #0
```

instead of

```
LDR      R0, R1, #0
```

This causes each character in the prompt to be loaded into R2. The subroutine Writechar forwards each character from R2 to the DDR.

In line 10 of Figure 9.8, we insert the instruction

```
ADD      R2, R0, #0
```

in order to move the keyboard input (which is in R0) into R2. The subroutine Writechar forwards it from R2 to the DDR. Note that R0 still contains the keyboard input. Furthermore, since no subsequent instruction in the service routine loads R0, R0 still contains the keyboard input after control returns to the user program.

In line 13 of Figure 9.8, we insert the instruction

```
LD       R2, Newline
```

in order to move the "newline" character into R2. The subroutine Writechar forwards it from R2 to the DDR.

Finally, we note that unlike Figure 9.4, this trap service routine contains several instances of the JSR instruction. Thus any linkage back to the calling


```

01      .ORIG      x04A0
02      START      ST      R7,SaveR7
03                      JSR      SaveReg
04                      LD      R2,Newline
05                      JSR      WriteChar
06                      LEA      R1,PROMPT
07      ;
08      ;
09      Loop      LDR      R2,R1,#0      ; Get next prompt char
10                      BRz      Input
11                      JSR      WriteChar
12                      ADD      R1,R1,#1
13                      BRnzp      Loop
14      ;
15      Input      JSR      ReadChar
16                      ADD      R2,R0,#0      ; Move char to R2 for writing
17                      JSR      WriteChar      ; Echo to monitor
18      ;
19                      LD      R2, Newline
20                      JSR      WriteChar
21                      JSR      RestoreReg
22                      LD      R7,SaveR7
23                      RET      ; JMP R7 terminates
24                      ; the TRAP routine
25      ;
26      SaveR7      .FILL      x0000
27      Newline      .FILL      x000A
28      Prompt      .STRINGZ      "Input a character>"
29      ;
30      WriteChar      LDI      R3,DSR
31                      BRzp      WriteChar
32                      STI      R2,DDR
33                      RET      ; JMP R7 terminates subroutine
34      DSR      .FILL      xFE04
35      DDR      .FILL      xFE06
36      ;
37      ReadChar      LDI      R3,KBSR
38                      BRzp      ReadChar
39                      LDI      R0,KBDR
40                      RET
41      KBSR      .FILL      xFE00
42      KBDR      .FILL      xFE02
43      ;
44      SaveReg      ST      R1,SaveR1
45                      ST      R2,SaveR2
46                      ST      R3,SaveR3
47                      ST      R4,SaveR4
48                      ST      R5,SaveR5
49                      ST      R6,SaveR6
50                      RET
51      ;
52      RestoreReg      LD      R1,SaveR1
53                      LD      R2,SaveR2
54                      LD      R3,SaveR3
55                      LD      R4,SaveR4
56                      LD      R5,SaveR5
57                      LD      R6,SaveR6
58                      RET
59      SaveR1      .FILL      x0000
60      SaveR2      .FILL      x0000
61      SaveR3      .FILL      x0000
62      SaveR4      .FILL      x0000
63      SaveR5      .FILL      x0000
64      SaveR6      .FILL      x0000
65      .END

```

Figure 9.8 The LC-3 trap service routine for character input

program that was contained in R7 when the service routine started execution was long ago overwritten (by the first JSR instruction, actually, in line 03). Therefore, we save R7 in line 02 before we execute our first JSR instruction, and we restore R7 in line 16 after we execute our last JSR instruction.

Figure 9.8 is the actual LC-3 trap service routine provided for keyboard input.

9.2.4 PUTS: Writing a Character String to the Monitor

Before we leave the example of Figure 9.8, note the code on lines 09 through 0D. This fragment of the service routine is used to write the sequence of characters *Input a character* to the monitor. A sequence of characters is often referred to as a *string of characters* or a *character string*. This fragment is also present in Figure 9.6, with the result that *Halting the machine* is written to the monitor. In fact, it is so often the case that a user program needs to write a string of characters to the monitor that this function is given its own trap vector in the LC-3 operating system. Thus, if a user program requires a character string to be written to the monitor, it need only provide (in R0) the starting address of the character string, and then invoke TRAP x22. In LC-3 assembly language this TRAP is called *PUTS*.

Thus, PUTS (or TRAP x22) causes control to be passed to the operating system, and the procedure shown in Figure 9.9 is executed. Note that PUTS is the code of lines 09 through 0D of Figure 9.8, with a few minor adjustments.

9.2.5 Library Routines

We noted early in this section that there are many uses for the Call/Return mechanism, among them the ability of a user program to call library subroutines that are usually delivered as part of the computer system. Libraries are provided as a convenience to the user programmer. They are legitimately advertised as “productivity enhancers” since they allow the user programmer to use them without having to know or learn much of their inner details. For example, a user programmer knows what a square root is (we abbreviate **SQRT**), and may need to use $\text{sqrt}(x)$ for some value x but does not have a clue as to how to write a program to do it, and probably would rather not have to learn how.

A simple example illustrates the point. We have lost our key and need to get into our apartment. We can lean a ladder up against the wall so that the ladder touches the bottom of our open window, 24 feet above the ground. There is a 10-foot flower bed on the ground along the edge of the wall, so we need to keep the base of the ladder outside the flower bed. How big a ladder do we need so that we can lean it against the wall and climb through the window? Or, stated less colorfully: If the sides of a right triangle are 24 feet and 10 feet, how big is the hypotenuse (see Figure 9.10)?

We remember from high school that Pythagoras answered that one for us:

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

```

01 ; This service routine writes a NULL-terminated string to the console.
02 ; It services the PUTS service call (TRAP x22).
03 ; Inputs: R0 is a pointer to the string to print.
04 ;
05         .ORIG    x0450                ; Where this ISR resides
06         ST      R7, SaveR7            ; Save R7 for later return
07         ST      R0, SaveR0            ; Save other registers that
08         ST      R1, SaveR1            ; are needed by this routine
09         ST      R3, SaveR3            ;
10
11 ; Loop through each character in the array
12 ;
13 Loop     LDR      R1, R0, #0           ; Retrieve the character(s)
14         BRZ      Return               ; If it is 0, done
15         LDI      R3, DSR
16         BRzp     L2
17         STI      R1, DDR               ; Write the character
18         ADD      R0, R0, #1           ; Increment pointer
19         BRnzp    Loop                 ; Do it all over again
20
21 ; Return from the request for service call
22 Return   LD       R3, SaveR3
23         LD       R1, SaveR1
24         LD       R0, SaveR0
25         LD       R7, SaveR7
26         RET
27
28 ; Register locations
29 DSR      .FILL    xFE04
30 DDR      .FILL    xFE06
31 SaveR0   .FILL    x0000
32 SaveR1   .FILL    x0000
33 SaveR3   .FILL    x0000
34 SaveR7   .FILL    x0000
35         .END

```

Figure 9.9 The LC-3 PUTS service routine

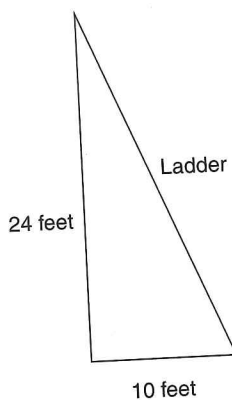


Figure 9.10 Solving for the length of the hypotenuse

Knowing a and b , we can easily solve for c by taking the square root of the sum of a^2 and b^2 . Taking the sum is not hard—the LC-3 ADD instruction will do the job. The square is also not hard; we can multiply two numbers by a sequence of additions. But how does one get the square root? The structure of our solution is shown in Figure 9.11.

The subroutine SQRT has yet to be written. If it were not for the Math Library, the programmer would have to pick up a math book (or get someone to do it for him/her), check out the Newton-Raphson method, and produce the missing subroutine.

However, with the Math Library, the problem pretty much goes away. Since the Math Library supplies a number of subroutines (including SQRT), the user programmer can continue to be ignorant of the likes of Newton-Raphson. The user still needs to know the label of the target address of the library routine that performs the square root function, where to put the argument x , and where to expect the result $SQRT(x)$. But these are easy conventions that can be obtained from the documentation associated with the Math Library.

```

01          ...
02          ...
03          LD      R0, SIDE1
04          BRz     S1
05          JSR     SQUARE
06      S1      ADD     R1, R0, #0
07          LD      R0, SIDE2
08          BRz     S2
09          JSR     SQUARE
0A      S2      ADD     R0, R0, R1
0B          JSR     SQRT
0C          ST      R0, HYPOT
0D          BRnzp   NEXT_TASK
0E      SQUARE ADD     R2, R0, #0
0F          ADD     R3, R0, #0
10      AGAIN  ADD     R2, R2, #-1
11          BRz     DONE
12          ADD     R0, R0, R3
13          BRnzp   AGAIN
14      DONE   RET
15      SQRT   ...           ; R0 <-- SQRT(R0)
16          ...           ;
17          ...           ; How do we write this subroutine?
18          ...           ;
19          ...           ;
1A          RET
1B      SIDE1 .BLKW    1
1C      SIDE2 .BLKW    1
1D      HYPOT .BLKW    1
1E          ...
1F          ...

```

Figure 9.11 A program fragment to compute the hypotenuse of a right triangle

If the library routine starts at address `SQRT`, and the argument is provided to the library routine at `R0`, and the result is obtained from the library routine at `R0`, Figure 9.11 reduces to Figure 9.12.

Two things are worth noting:

- *Thing 1*—The programmer no longer has to worry about how to compute the square root function. The library routine does that for us.
- *Thing 2*—The pseudo-op `.EXTERNAL`. We already saw in Section 7.4.2 that this pseudo-op tells the assembler that the label (`SQRT`), which is needed to assemble the `.FILL` pseudo-op in line 19, will be supplied by some other program fragment (i.e., module) and will be combined with this program fragment (i.e., module) when the *executable image* is produced. The executable image is the binary module that actually executes. The executable image is produced at *link* time.

This notion of combining multiple modules at link time to produce an executable image is the normal case. Figure 9.13 illustrates the process. You will see concrete examples of this when we work with the programming language C in the second half of this course.

```

01          ...
02          ...
03          .EXTERNAL SQRT
04          ...
05          ...
06          LD      R0, SIDE1
07          BRz     1$
08          JSR     SQUARE
09          1$     ADD     R1, R0, #0
0A          LD      R0, SIDE2
0B          BRz     2$
0C          JSR     SQUARE
0D          2$     ADD     R0, R0, R1 ; R0 contains argument x
0E          LD      R4, BASE
0F          JSRR    R4
10          ST      R0, HYPOT
11          BRnzp   NEXT_TASK
12          SQUARE ADD     R2, R0, #0
13          ADD     R3, R0, #0
14          AGAIN  ADD     R2, R2, #-1
15          BRz     DONE
16          ADD     R0, R0, R3
17          BRnzp   AGAIN
18          DONE   RET
19          BASE   .FILL   SQRT
1A          SIDE1 .BLKW   1
1B          SIDE2 .BLKW   1
1C          HYPOT .BLKW   1
1D          ...
1E          ...

```

Figure 9.12 The program fragment of Figure 9.10, using a library routine

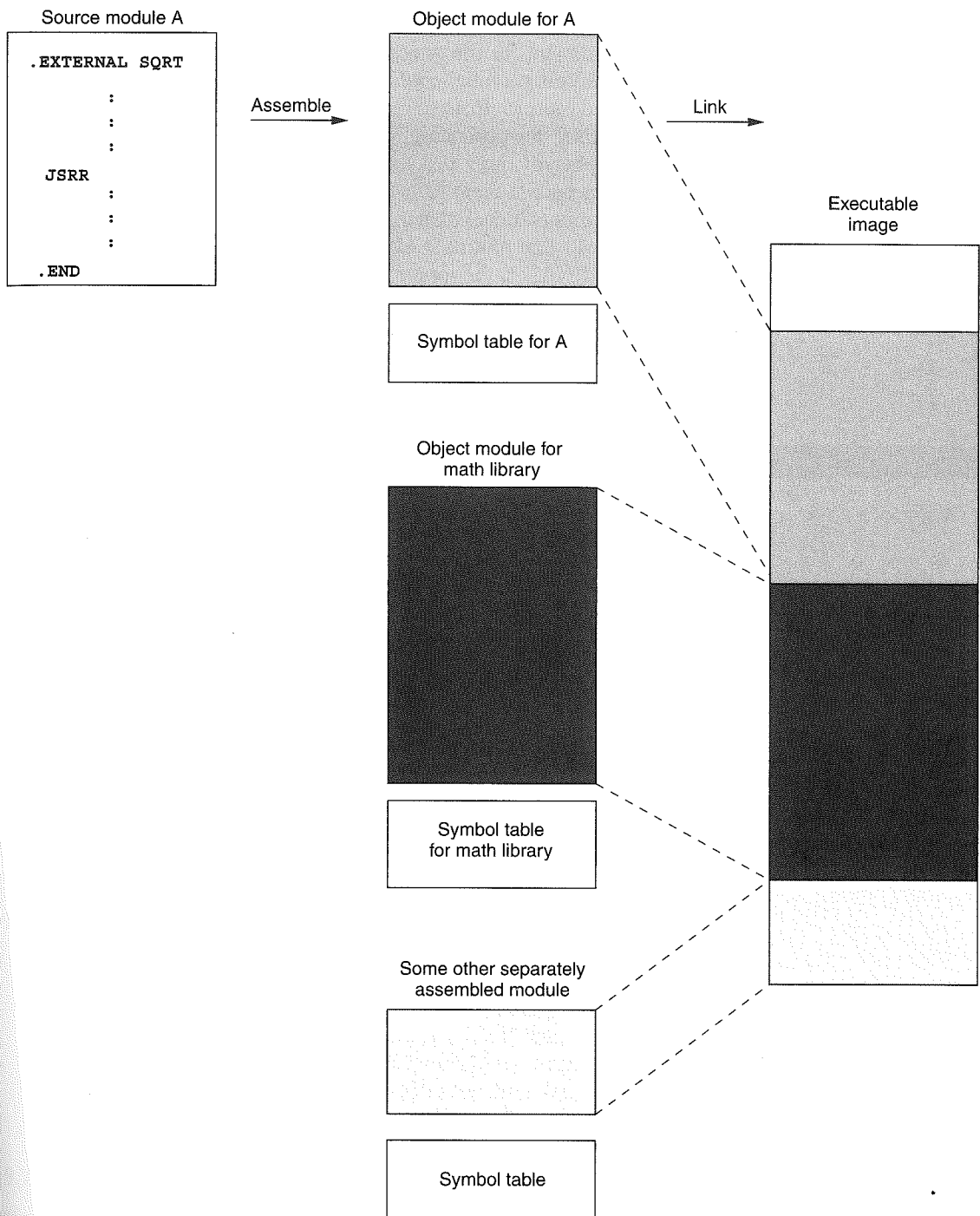


Figure 9.13 An executable image constructed from multiple files

Most application software requires library routines from various libraries. It would be very inefficient for the typical programmer to produce all of them—assuming the typical programmer could produce such routines in the first place. We have mentioned routines from the Math Library. There are also a number of preprocessing routines for producing “pretty” graphic images. There are other routines for a number of other tasks where it would make no sense at all to have the programmer write them from scratch. It is much easier to require only (1) appropriate documentation so that the interface between the library routine and the program that calls that routine is clear, and (2) the use of the proper pseudo-ops such as `.EXTERNAL` in the source program. The linker can then produce an executable image at link time from the separately assembled modules.

Exercises

- 9.1** Name some of the advantages of doing I/O through a TRAP routine instead of writing the routine yourself each time you would like your program to perform I/O.
- 9.2**
- How many trap service routines can be implemented in the LC-3? Why?
 - Why must a RET instruction be used to return from a TRAP routine? Why won't a BR (Unconditional Branch) instruction work instead?
 - How many accesses to memory are made during the processing of a TRAP instruction? Assume the TRAP is already in the IR.
- 9.3** Refer to Figure 9.6, the HALT service routine.
- What starts the clock after the machine is HALTed? Hint: How can the HALT service routine return after bit [15] of the machine control register is cleared?
 - Which instruction actually halts the machine?
 - What is the first instruction executed when the machine is started again?
 - Where will the RET of the HALT routine return to?

9.4 Consider the following LC-3 assembly language program:

```

        .ORIG    x3000
L1      LEA      R1, L1
        AND      R2, R2, x0
        ADD      R2, R2, x2
        LD       R3, P1
L2      LDR      R0, R1, xC
        OUT
        ADD      R3, R3, #-1
        BRz      GLUE
        ADD      R1, R1, R2
        BR       L2
GLUE    HALT
P1      .FILL    xB
        .STRINGZ "HBoeoakteSmtHaotren!s"
        .END

```

- After this program is assembled and loaded, what binary pattern is stored in memory location x3005?
- Which instruction (provide a memory address) is executed after instruction x3005 is executed?
- Which instruction (provide a memory address) is executed prior to instruction x3006?
- What is the output of this program?

9.5 The following LC-3 program is assembled and then executed. There are no assemble time or run-time errors. What is the output of this program? Assume all registers are initialized to 0 before the program executes.

```

        .ORIG    x3000
        ST       R0, x3007
        LEA      R0, LABEL
        TRAP     x22
        TRAP     x25
LABEL    .STRINGZ "FUNKY"
LABEL2   .STRINGZ "HELLO WORLD"
        .END

```

- The correct operation of the program in Example 9.1 assumes that the person sitting at the keyboard only types capital letters and the value 7. What if the person types a \$? A better program would be one that tests the character typed to be sure it really is a capital letter from among the 26 capital letters in the alphabet, and if it is not, takes corrective action. Your job: Augment the program of Example 9.1 to add a test for bad data. That is, write a program that will type the lowercase representation of any capital letter typed and will terminate if anything other than a capital letter is typed.
- Two students wrote interrupt service routines for an assignment. Both service routines did exactly the same work, but the first student accidentally used RET at the end of his routine, while the second student correctly used RTI. There are three errors that arose in the first student's program due to his mistake. Describe any two of them.

- 9.8** Assume that an integer greater than 2 and less than 32,768 is deposited in memory location A by another module before the program below is executed.

```

                                .ORIG    x3000
                                AND      R4, R4, #0
                                LD       R0, A
                                NOT      R5, R0
                                ADD      R5, R5, #2
                                ADD      R1, R4, #2
                                ;
                                REMOD    JSR      MOD
                                BRZ      STORE0
                                ;
                                ADD      R7, R1, R5
                                BRZ      STORE1
                                ADD      R1, R1, #1
                                BR       REMOD
                                ;
                                STORE1   ADD      R4, R4, #1
                                STORE0   ST      R4, RESULT
                                TRAP     x25
                                ;
                                MOD      ADD      R2, R0, #0
                                NOT      R3, R1
                                ADD      R3, R3, #1
                                DEC      ADD      R2, R2, R3
                                BRp      DEC
                                RET
                                ;
                                A        .BLKW 1
                                RESULT   .BLKW 1
                                .END

```

In 20 words or fewer, what does the above program do?

- 9.9** Recall the machine busy example. Suppose the bit pattern indicating which machines are busy and which are free is stored in memory location x4001. Write subroutines that do the following.
- Check if no machines are busy, and return 1 if none are busy.
 - Check if all machines are busy, and return 1 if all are busy.
 - Check how many machines are busy, and return the number of busy machines.
 - Check how many machines are free, and return the number of free machines.
 - Check if a certain machine number, passed as an argument in R5, is busy, and return 1 if that machine is busy.
 - Return the number of a machine that is not busy.
- 9.10** The starting address of the trap routine is stored at the address specified in the TRAP instruction. Why isn't the first instruction of the trap routine stored at that address instead? Assume each trap service routine requires at most 16 instructions. Modify the semantics of the LC-3 TRAP instruction so that the trap vector provides the starting address of the service routine.

- 9.11** Following is part of a program that was fed to the LC-3 assembler. The program is supposed to read a series of input lines from the console into a buffer, search for a particular character, and output the number of times that character occurs in the text. The input text is terminated by an EOT and is guaranteed to be no more than 1,000 characters in length. After the text has been input, the program reads the character to count.

The subroutine labeled COUNT that actually does the counting was written by another person and is located at address x3500. When called, the subroutine expects the address of the buffer to be in R5 and the address of the character to count to be in R6. The buffer should have a NULL to mark the end of the text. It returns the count in R6.

The OUTPUT subroutine that converts the binary count to ASCII digits and displays them was also written by another person and is at address x3600. It expects the number to print to be in R6.

Here is the code that reads the input and calls COUNT:

```

        .ORIG    x3000
        LEA      R1, BUFFER
G_TEXT  TRAP     x20          ; Get input text
        ADD     R2, R0, x-4
        BRz     G_CHAR
        STR     R0, R1, #0
        ADD     R1, R1, #1
        BRz     G_TEXT
G_CHAR  STR     R2, R1, #0    ; x0000 terminates buffer
        TRAP    x20          ; Get character to count
        ST      R0, S_CHAR
        LEA     R5, BUFFER
        LEA     R6, S_CHAR
        LD      R4, CADDR
        JSRR    R4           ; Count character
        LD      R4, OADDR
        JSRR    R4           ; Convert R6 and display
        TRAP    x25
CADDR   .FILL   x3500        ; Address of COUNT
OADDR   .FILL   x3600        ; Address of OUTPUT
BUFFER  .BLKW   1001
S_CHAR  .FILL   x0000
        .END

```

There is a problem with this code. What is it, and how might it be fixed?
(The problem is *not* that the code for COUNT and OUTPUT is missing.)

9.12 Consider the following LC-3 assembly language program:

```

                                .ORIG    x3000
                                LEA      R0, DATA
                                AND      R1, R1, #0
                                ADD      R1, R1, #9
LOOP1                          ADD      R2, R0, #0
                                ADD      R3, R1, #0
LOOP2                          JSR      SUB1
                                ADD      R4, R4, #0
                                BRzrp   LABEL
                                JSR      SUB2
                                ADD      R2, R2, #1
LABEL                          ADD      R3, R3, #-1
                                BRP      LOOP2
                                ADD      R1, R1, #-1
                                BRp     LOOP1
                                HALT
DATA                          .BLKW    10
SUB1                          LDR      R5, R2, #0
                                NOT      R5, R5
                                ADD      R5, R5, #1
                                LDR      R6, R2, #1
                                ADD      R4, R5, R6
                                RET
SUB2                          LDR      R4, R2, #0
                                LDR      R5, R2, #1
                                STR      R4, R2, #1
                                STR      R5, R2, #0
                                RET
                                .END

```

Assuming that the memory locations at DATA get filled in before the program executes, what is the relationship between the final values at DATA and the initial values at DATA?

9.13 The following program is supposed to print the number 5 on the screen. It does not work. Why? Answer in no more than ten words, please.

```

                                .ORIG    x3000
                                JSR      A
                                OUT
                                BRnzp   DONE
A                              AND      R0, R0, #0
                                ADD      R0, R0, #5
                                JSR      B
                                RET
                                DONE
                                HALT
ASCII                          .FILL    x0030
B                              LD       R1, ASCII
                                ADD      R0, R0, R1
                                RET
                                .END

```

- 9.14** Figure 9.6 shows a service routine to stop the computer by clearing the RUN latch, bit [15] of the Machine Control Register. The latch is cleared by the instruction in line 14, and the computer stops. What purpose is served by the instructions on lines 19 through 1C?
- 9.15** Suppose we define a new service routine starting at memory location x4000. This routine reads in a character and echoes it to the screen. Suppose memory location x0072 contains the value x4000. The service routine is shown below.

```

                .ORIG x4000
                ST R7, Saver7
                GETC
                OUT
                LD R7, Saver7
                RET
Saver7         .FILL x0000

```

- Identify the instruction that will invoke this routine.
 - Will this service routine work? Explain.
- 9.16** The two code sequences *a* and *b* are assembled separately. There is one error that will be caught at assemble time or at link time. Identify and describe why the bug will cause an error, and whether it will be detected at assemble time or link time.

a.

```

                .ORIG x3200
SQRT   ADD      R0, R0, #0
        ; code to perform square
        ; root function and
        ; return the result in R0
        RET
        .END

```

b.

```

                .EXTERNAL SQRT
                .ORIG   x3000
                LD      R0, VALUE
                JSR      SQRT
                ST      R0, DEST
                HALT
VALUE         .FILL    x30000
DEST          .FILL    x0025
                .END

```

9.17 Shown below is a partially constructed program. The program asks the user his/her name and stores the sentence "Hello, name" as a string starting from the memory location indicated by the symbol HELLO. The program then outputs that sentence to the screen. The program assumes that the user has finished entering his/her name when he/she presses the Enter key, whose ASCII code is x0A. The name is restricted to be not more than 25 characters.

Assuming that the user enters Onur followed by a carriage return when prompted to enter his/her name, the output of the program looks exactly like:

```
Please enter your name: Onur
Hello, Onur
```

Insert instructions at (a)–(d) that will complete the program.

```

                                .ORIG x3000
                                LEA   R1, HELLO
AGAIN  LDR   R2, R1, #0
                                BRZ   NEXT
                                ADD   R1, R1, #1
                                BR     AGAIN
                                LEA   R0, PROMPT
NEXT   TRAP  x22                ; PUTS
                                ----- (a)
                                TRAP  x20                ; GETC
AGAIN2 TRAP  x21                ; OUT
                                ADD   R2, R0, R3
                                BRZ   CONT
                                ----- (b)
                                ----- (c)
                                BR     AGAIN2
                                AND    R2, R2, #0
CONT   ----- (d)
                                LEA   R0, HELLO
                                TRAP  x22                ; PUTS
                                TRAP  x25                ; HALT
                                .FILL xFFF6                ; -x0A
NEGENTER .FILL xFFF6
PROMPT   .STRINGZ "Please enter your name: "
HELLO    .STRINGZ "Hello, "
                                .BLKW #25
                                .END

```

- 9.18** The program below, when complete, should print the following to the monitor:

ABCFGH

Insert instructions at (a)–(d) that will complete the program.

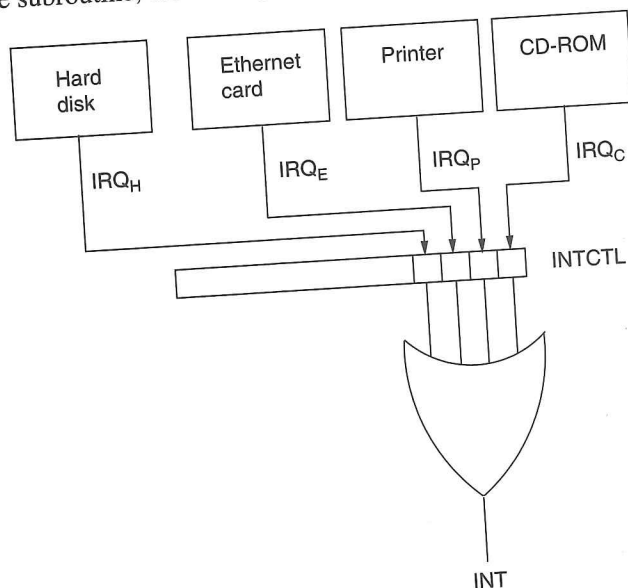
```

                .ORIG x3000
                LEA    R1, TESTOUT
BACK_1          LDR     R0, R1, #0
                BRz    NEXT_1
                TRAP   x21
                ----- (a)
                BRnzp  BACK_1
                ;
NEXT_1          LEA     R1, TESTOUT
BACK_2          LDR     R0, R1, #0
                BRz    NEXT_2
                JSR     SUB_1
                ADD     R1, R1, #1
                BRnzp  BACK_2
                ;
NEXT_2          ----- (b)
                ;
SUB_1           ----- (c)
K               LDI     R2, DSR
                ----- (d)

                STI     R0, DDR
                RET
DSR             .FILL  xFE04
DDR             .FILL  xFE06
TESTOUT         .STRINGZ "ABC"
                .END

```


9.19 A local company has decided to build a real LC-3 computer. In order to make the computer work in a network, four interrupt-driven I/O devices are connected. To request service, a device asserts its interrupt request signal (IRQ). This causes a bit to get set in a special LC-3 memory-mapped interrupt control register called INTCTL which is mapped to address xFF00. The INTCTL register is shown below. When a device requests service, the INT signal in the LC-3 data path is asserted. The LC-3 interrupt service routine determines which device has requested service and calls the appropriate subroutine for that device. If more than one device asserts its IRQ signal at the same time, only the subroutine for the highest priority device is executed. During execution of the subroutine, the corresponding bit in INTCTL is cleared.



The following labels are used to identify the first instruction of each device subroutine:

HARDDISK ETHERNET PRINTER CDROM

For example, if the highest priority device requesting service is the printer, the interrupt service routine will call the printer subroutine with the following instruction:

JSR PRINTER

Finish the code in the LC-3 interrupt service routine for the following priority scheme by filling in the spaces labeled (a)–(k). The lower the number, the higher the priority of the device.

1. Hard disk
2. Ethernet card
3. Printer
4. CD-ROM

```

DEV0      LDI    R1, INTCTL
          LD     R2, ----- (a)
          AND    R2, R2, R1
          BRnz   DEV1
          JSR    ----- (b)
          ----- (c)

;
DEV1      LD     R2, ----- (d)
          AND    R2, R2, R1
          BRnz   DEV2
          JSR    ----- (e)
          ----- (f)

;
DEV2      LD     R2, ----- (g)
          AND    R2, R2, R1
          BRnz   DEV3
          JSR    ----- (h)
          ----- (i)

;
DEV3      JSR    ----- (j)

;
END       ----- (k)

INTCTL    .FILL   xFF00
MASK8     .FILL   x0008
MASK4     .FILL   x0004
MASK2     .FILL   x0002
MASK1     .FILL   x0001

```